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ABSTRACT

Many have asserted that high female labor turnover imposes costs on employers which induce firms to discriminate in hiring and pay against women. This study examines male and female quit data and draws two primary conclusions. First, women are less likely than men to quit for job related reasons although women do quit more often because of household responsibilities. It is not necessarily true that total female quit rates exceed male rates. Second, female quit rates are their lowest relative to male rates during periods of low unemployment which suggests the importance of maintaining full employment to combat discrimination. (Included are tables and graphs.) (Author)

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Working Paper 1974-01

LABOR TURNOVER AND SEX DISCRIMINATION

by

J. Peter Mattila

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Recent writi[illegible] on sex discrimination has suggested that greater voluntary labor turnover among women than men may explain part of the observed job exclusion and salary discrimination against women. The argument is relatively simple. There are fixed costs involved in hiring (advertising, recruiting, screening, and testing) and training (instruction, materials, and foregone production) which the firm must bear and cannot shift to the recruit.[1] In order to protect the firm's investment and to minimize these costs, the firm will attempt to hire those workers who have the lowest expected probability of voluntarily quitting and who have the longest expected duration of employment. Because it is difficult and costly to obtain reliable information about expected turnover for any single individual, the firm will sometimes rely upon group statistical relationships. That is, if past experience has suggested that women have higher probabilities of quitting jobs (due to pregnancy and household responsibilities in part) than do men, then a cheap and fairly reliable decision rule will be to hire a man, other things being equal.[2] Or if a woman is hired, a lower wage must be paid in order to cover the larger expected turnover costs.

In spite of the wide discussion of this hypothesis, very little empirical evidence has been offered relating to the validity of its assumptions or conclusions. Some authors accept higher female turnover as fact. Gallaway, for instance, asserts:

"First, women do have a greater tendency to be "transient" in their labor force behavior. ... If married, they may suddenly leave employment because of a change in their husband's labor force activity (such as a move to another geographic area). Or they may withdraw from the labor force to

have children and rear them. On the other hand, if an employer has unmarried female employees, he must bear in mind the possibility that their marital status is subject to change. However, how important is the matter of the tendency of women to be transient in their labor force attachment? Quantitatively, it is substantial.[3] Some simple statistics taken from the Social Security Administration records used earlier indicate that of men and women employed at a particular point in time, the women in the group are over one-third more likely to be nonemployed at some point in the future."[4]

Gallaway refers to evidence that working women are more likely to withdraw from the labor force than are men over a given period of time. Although this is true, it ignores the fact that many persons leaving jobs quit to take other jobs. Implicitly, Gallaway is assuming that women are at least as likely as men to quit for improved employment. As we shall argue, the latter is not usually true.

A somewhat more skeptical but still unsubstantiated view has been expressed by the President's Council of Economic Advisers:

"Employers also may have formulated discriminatory attitudes about women, exaggerating the risk of job instability or client acceptance and therefore excluding women from on-the-job training which would advance their careers.

In fact, even if employers do estimate correctly the average job turnover of women, women who are strongly committed to their jobs may suffer from "statistical discrimination" by being treated as though their own behavior resembled the average. The extent to which this type of discrimination occurs depends on how costly it is for employers to distinguish women who will have a strong job commitment from those who will not."[5]

The Council suggests that the incidence of female turnover may be exaggerated in the minds of some but the limited evidence presented indicates that women have shorter years of tenure on their current job than do men.[6]

Similar ideas have appeared in other recent articles on sex discrimination with little or no discussion of the facts.[7] In this paper, I will attempt to rectify this problem by analyzing some of the available evidence on sex differences in voluntary labor mobility. Two conclusions are reached. First, although women do have a greater tendency than men to leave the labor force because of household and other non-market reasons, men are more likely than women to quit for an improved job. Second, the extent to which female quit rates exceed male quit rates is extremely sensitive to cyclical factors. Sex differences in turnover are minimal during periods of full employment suggesting that high levels of aggregate demand should help to minimize any discrimination caused by turnover costs.

Reasons for Leaving Jobs

As noted, workers may leave jobs voluntarily either by withdrawing from the labor force or by moving to other more desirable jobs.[8] Data are available from two national Census Bureau surveys of job mobility which provide estimates of the total number of jobs left during a twelve-month period.[9] In each case where a job was left, the person was asked the reason for leaving. Of interest to us are jobs left to improve employment status[10] and jobs left because of illness, household responsibility, or school responsibility. The last three categories have been added together in order to estimate quits to leave the labor force for non-market reasons.[11]

In order to compare the relative propensity to quit by sex, "annual quit rates" were first calculated for men and women separately as the ratio of total jobs left annually to average monthly employment. The "annual female quit rate" was then divided by the "annual male quit rate" to compare the results most conveniently. These "ratios" are presented in Table 1 by reason for leaving job in 1955 and 1961. A "ratio" exceeding 1.0 indicates that the female voluntary turnover rate exceeds the male rate. A value less than 1.0 implies the opposite.

Nationally, women were 65% to 88% more likely than men to leave a job due to household, school, and illness reasons as seen in columns 2 and 5 of Table 1. What is more interesting, however, is that in 1955 and 1961 women were approximately 20% less likely than men to leave employment to improve their job status (columns 1 and 4). Perhaps job discrimination and the shorter expected duration of employment reduces the female's expected return from job search and discourages quitting. Whatever the cause, this source of job stability among women has not been adequately recognized in the literature.

Other things being equal, the impact on an employer is exactly the same when a female employee quits to raise children as when a male employee quits to work elsewhere. It is the fact of separation, rather than the cause, that is of interest to the firm. In order to spotlight this dimension, quits to improve job status were added to quits to leave the labor force and female to male ratios were calculated as before. These "ratios" are presented in columns 3 and 6 of Table 1. In 1955 total female quit rates were 8% below male quit rates while in 1961 the rates were virtually equal. Movements between jobs were much more prevalent than were movements out of the labor force. Even among women, two or three quits for

improved job status were made for every quit to leave the labor force as seen in Table 2.

Can I conclude that women are no more likely to quit jobs than men? I would recommend caution for several reasons. First, our count of job quits is probably incomplete. The survey questions were aimed primarily at distinguishing among causes of job changing rather than at completely enumerating quits.[12] Second, as we will discuss later, Bureau of Labor Statistics (B.L.S.) data on quits yield somewhat different results. Third, it would be desirable to control for demographic characteristics and type of work when comparing male and female turnover. The surveys do allow some disaggregation although more detailed information would be desirable.

Ratios of female to male quit rates are presented in Table 1 for various age, occupation, and industry groups. Age appears to make little difference[13] except among quits to leave the labor force. Young men (14-24) were more likely to quit because of school related reasons. Women particularly those 25 to 44 are much more likely than men to leave a job because of household factors. This is not surprising in view of the traditional child care responsibilities of women 25 to 44.

Turning to the occupational and industrial data, female to male ratios of quits made to improve job status were 1.01 or smaller in all cases but one, consistent with the national statistics. Ratios of quits to leave the labor force exceed 1.0 in all cases except six. Several of the exceptions may be explained by sampling variation and small sample size. In particular, craftsmen, unskilled laborers, and construction workers have very few female employees.[14]

The results for total quits are mixed. Among the occupations employing the largest number of women, female clerical and service workers had

larger quit rates than did their male counterparts while the opposite was true for operatives and professional and technical workers. Results for sales workers were mixed. Female managers were 4 to 5% more likely to quit than were male managers. It is difficult to generalize for occupations except to note that female quit rates were relatively low among the less skilled operatives and farm and non-farm laborers. Further disaggregation and control for education and pay might help to clarify the situation among white collar workers.

The ratios in columns 3 and 6 are also mixed for industries. Females had higher quit rates in retail and wholesale trade but lower quit rates than men in public administration and the service industries. Females had 33% lower quit rates in manufacturing in 1955 than men but 14% higher rates in 1961.

Cyclical Variation in Labor Turnover Ratios

Additional evidence on the relative turnover experience of men and women is available for manufacturing industries from quit rate data which were collected between 1950 and 1968 by the B.L.S. establishment survey. Four times per year (January, April, July, and October), manufacturing firms reported the total numbers of male quits and female quits that were recorded during the month. The B.L.S. then divided these quits by mid-month employment to calculate the respective quit rates.[15]

I have calculated "ratios" of female quit rates to male quit rates (analagous to those used in the previous section) for total manufacturing and for twenty-one individual manufacturing industries. Annual averages of the monthly "ratios" were calculated and selected data are presented in Graph 1

and Table 3. It should be noted that the earlier quit rates (1950-1961) published by the B.L.S. are not strictly comparable to those published later (1958-1968) because of an expanded sample size and some changes in the Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) code.[16] Observation of the overlapping years (1958-1960) for which both series are available indicates that the expanded sample size reduced the female quit rate relative to the male quit rate. This was true for total manufacturing (see Graph 1) and for all but four of the component industries (not shown).[17]

The main point of this section can be easily visualized by looking at Graph 1. The manufacturing female to male quit ratio is plotted against the national unemployment rate.[18] As is evident, female quit rates were almost twice as large as male quit rates during recessions but more nearly equal during periods of full employment.[19]

The same phenomenon can be summarized by a regression of the monthly ratio of female to male quit rates (FQ/MQ) on unemployment (U), seasonal dummy variables (Ja=January; A=April; Ju=July), and a dummy variable (S=1 for observations, 1950-1961) to control for the changes in B.L.S. data collection processes discussed earlier.[20] The regression results with "t-ratios" in parentheses below the coefficients are:

$$(1)\quad \frac{FQ}{MQ} = \underset{(10.86)}{.76} + \underset{(3.73)}{.15}\,S - \underset{(2.16)}{.14}\,Ja - \underset{(4.68)}{.28}\,A - \underset{(.76)}{.04}\,Ju + \underset{(12.83)}{.19}\,U$$

$$R^2 = .71$$

A decrease in the unemployment rate from 7% to 4% would reduce female quit rates relative to male quit rates by over 50 percentage points.

A more detailed industry breakdown is presented in Table 3. Female to male quit ratios are presented for averages of selected years. I chose

1951-1953 and 1966-1968 as years of lowest unemployment and 1958-1963 as a period of generally depressed labor markets. In all twenty-one detailed manufacturing industries, females had considerably lower turnover relative to men during 1966-1968 than was the case during the recession years.[21] In all but five industries, the quit ratio was also lower in 1951-1953 than in 1958-1963 in spite of the differing nature of the surveys and the bias discussed previously.[22]

Additional confirmation of this cyclical phenomenon is available in Table 1. Female to male quit ratios were smaller in 1955, a year of relatively full employment, than they were in 1961, a recession year. This was true nationally, in all age groups, and in most occupations and industries.[23]

Why do relative quit ratios decline so much as unemployment rates fall? Some answers are suggested by Table 2. In part, rising employment opportunities induce a rapid expansion in job changing which tends to swamp the relatively constant proportion of quits to leave the labor force.[24] Algebraically, one can think of quit rates (Q) as being composed of a labor force exit component (LFE) and a job changing component (JC). The female (FQ) to male (MQ) quit ratios can be written as:

$$(2)\quad \frac{FQ}{MQ} = \frac{FLFE + FJC}{MLFE + MJC}$$

During a recession, when everyone finds it difficult to line up better jobs,[25] job changing will be minimal so that the relatively high propensity of women to leave the labor force (FLFE) will dominate and tend to cause the ratio to exceed one. As opportunities expand, however, the job changing components will come to dominate and the ratio will fall towards one.

Table 2 suggests also that the male job changing component (MJC) may expand more rapidly than the female job changing component when unemployment declines. This effect is most evident among persons of prime working age. Men of ages 25 to 65 were 29% more likely to quit in 1955 than in 1961 whereas women were only 13% more likely to quit. This conclusion must be tentative in view of our limited evidence but, if valid, would further tend to lower the female to male quit ratio.[26]

Implications and Conclusions

The implications of these findings are important. It has been alleged that employers discriminate against women because of a woman's greater tendency to leave jobs due to child care and household responsibilities. This argument ignores the fact that most quits occur in order to take other jobs. In fact, women seem to be somewhat less likely than men to quit for job related reasons.

It is not clear whether total female quit rates always exceed male rates. The Census Bureau and B.L.S. data conflict on this point. In Table 1, the female to male quit ratio in manufacturing was .67 in 1955 and 1.14 in 1961. The ratio exceeded 1.0 in total manufacturing in all years in the B.L.S. survey. I have no <u>a priori</u> reason to put more weight on one survey or the other.[27]

It is clear, however, that female quit rates are their lowest relative to male quit rates during periods of full employment. Hence, an effective method of minimizing sex discrimination which is caused by labor turnover costs is to maintain high levels of aggregate demand and low unemployment.[28] Under these conditions, employers will learn through experience that female quit rates vary little from male rates.

Footnotes

[1] See for example, Walter Oi, "Labor as a Quasi-Fixed Factor," Journal of Political Economy, Vol. 70, No. 6 (December 1962); and John G. Myers, Job Vacancies in the Firm and the Labor Market (New York: The Conference Board, 1969), Appendix, pp. 80-101.

[2] Several good references on screening include Peter B. Doeringer and Michael J. Piore, Internal Labor Markets and Manpower Analysis (Lexington, Mass.: Heath Lexington, 1971), especially pp. 29-30, 102-106, and 136-140; John J. McCall, "The Simple Mathematics of Information, Job Search, and Prejudice," in Anthony H. Pascal, Racial Discrimination in Economic Life (Lexington, Mass.: Lexington, 1972), especially pp. 213-218; George J. Stigler, "Information in the Labor Market," Journal of Political Economy, Vol. 70, No. 5, Part 2 (Supplement, October 1962), pp. 94-105.

[3] Italics added by author for emphasis.

[4] Lowell E. Gallaway, Manpower Economics (Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, 1971), p. 196.

[5] U.S. Council of Economic Advisers, Economic Report of the President, January 1973 (Washington D.C.: G.P.O., 1973), pp. 106-107.

[6] Ibid., pp. 95-96.

[7] See for instance, Juanita Kreps, Sex in the Marketplace: American Women at Work (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1971), pp. 44-45; Richard B. Mancke, "Lower Pay for Women: A Case of Economic Discrimination?",

Industrial Relations, Vol. 10, No. 3 (October 1971), pp. 316-326. See also, D. P. Flanders and P. E. Anderson, "Sex Discrimination in Employment: Theory and Practice," Industrial and Labor Relations Review, Vol. 26, No. 3 (April 1973), pp. 938-955.

[8] For summaries of research on labor mobility see Herbert S. Parnes, Research on Labor Mobility (New York: Social Science Research Council, 1954); Herbert S. Parnes, "Labor Force Participation and Labor Mobility," in A Review of Industrial Relations Research Vol. I (Madison, Wis.: Industrial Relations Research Association, 1970).

[9] U.S. Bureau of the Census, "Job Mobility in 1955," Current Population Report: Labor Force, Series P-50, No. 70 (February 1957); Gertrude Bancroft and Stuart Garfinkle, "Job Mobility in 1961," Special Labor Force Report No. 35, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (August 1963).

[10] Defined as "job quits in order to get a better job, make more money, dissatisfaction with the kind of work, conditions of employment, or other aspects of the job." Bancroft and Garfinkle, "Job Mobility in 1961," p. A-3.

[11] A person may quit a full-time job because of household or school responsibilities and take a part-time job. Hence, not all quits due to these three categories need strictly lead to exits from the labor force. However, the non-market motivation for the job change is the same.

[12] Jobs left were categorized into eight groups: 1. jobs lost, 2. improvement in status, 3. termination of a temporary job, 4. illness or disability, 5. household responsibilities, 6. school responsibilities, 7. other reasons,

including discharge, and 8. not reported. In particular, "terminations of temporary jobs and separations from seasonal jobs" were not included in Table 1 because it was felt that the majority would be employer initiated layoffs although some might be quits. Between 8% and 16% of all jobs left were placed in the "other reasons, including discharge" category and were also excluded from Table 1 although some might be quits. Tables 1 and 2 were calculated (not shown) including quits for "other reasons." This did not change the basic conclusions of this paper.

13 Older persons have lower turnover rates as is well known but male and female rates diminish together with age so that the "ratios" change little. An exception is the high ratio for persons 45-64 in 1961. This may reflect greater sensitivity of older men to unemployment during a recession than older women.

14 One or both surveys did not report separate female data for craftsmen, laborers, construction, or for managers, transportation workers, and public administration employees because the sample size was too small. I was able to make estimates for these groups by calculating female jobs left as a residual of total jobs left minus jobs left by males. Because of these estimation problems, results for these groups should be used with caution.

15 Quits are defined as "termination of employment initiated by employees for any reason except retirement, transfer to another establishment of the same firm, or service in the Armed Forces." Quit rates by sex were discontinued after 1968 although total quit rates are still published. U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Labor Turnover Report (1950-1952); Employment and Payrolls (1953-1954); Employment and Earnings (1954-1969).

[16] Changes from the 1945 SIC code to the 1957 SIC code were relatively minor. The primary change appears to have been the increased sample size which allowed B.L.S. to expand the number of industry categories for which it published labor turnover data from 121 to 223 and to reduce sampling bias and variation. See, U.S. B.L.S., "The Revised and Expanded Program of Current Payroll Employment Statistics," Employment and Earnings (November 1961), pp. iv-x.

[17] The B.L.S. survey does not employ a random sample and hence may give biased estimates. My explanation of this reduction in the female to male quit ratio is that the expanded sample added relatively small firms which tend to employ less skilled and lower paid workers. I discussed some evidence in the previous section that female to male ratios were generally low in the less skilled occupations such as operative and laborers. In Table 3 also, the lowest female to male quit ratios tend to occur in the low wage industries such as lumber, furniture, textiles, leather, and apparel. If I am correct, these small firms tended to pull down the relative female quit rate, reducing the previous upward bias. In this sense, the more recent data since 1958 are more reliable.

[18] The national unemployment rate of males 16 years and over was used in Graph 1 and regression equation (1) to minimize the upward drift in total unemployment rates which has occurred because of increasing female labor force participation and rising female unemployment rates. I feel that the male unemployment rate gives a better measure of cyclical fluctuations. See George L. Perry, "Changing Labor Markets and Inflation," Brookings Papers on Economic Activity: 3 (1970), pp. 411-441.

[19] A similar relationship is evident in plots (not shown) for all twenty-one component industries. The annual average for 1950 seems to be a bit of an outlier, falling below the other points in Graph 1. Closer examination of the monthly data indicates that this is due to the peculiar, rapid expansion of the economy during the last half of 1950 which was caused by the outbreak of the Korean War. Apparently job opportunities expanded more rapidly in the manufacturing sector than national unemployment declined. The relevant monthly data are:

	Jan.	Apr.	July	Oct.	Yr. Av.
Male unemployment rate	7.8%	6.2%	4.9%	2.9%	5.1%
Ratio female to male quit rate	1.88	1.50	1.11	1.03	1.38

[20] Two observations for each of the overlapping months (January 1958 to April 1961) were included in the regression. The shift variable "S" adjusts for the differences in the B.L.S. sample.

[21] The phenomenon reported in this section was observed by the author in his dissertation, "Theory and Estimation of Quit Functions," (Univ. of Wisconsin, 1969). See discussion also in J. Peter Mattila, "Quit Behavior in the Labor Market," American Statistical Association Proceedings, Economic Statistics Section (August 1969), pp. 700-701. Since completing this paper, related results presented in a different context have come to my attention. See, William F. Barnes and Ethel B. Jones, "Manufacturing Quit Rates Revisited: A Cyclical View of Women's Quits," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 96, No. 12 (December 1973), p. 55.

[22] When 1958 data collected under the earlier survey (1945 SIC) are compared with the 1951-1953 averages, the latter is smaller than the former

in all cases but two. The exceptions, lumber and leather products, generally had low female to male quit ratios throughout the two decades. See the text and footnotes 16 and 17 for discussion of survey differences. More detailed data are available upon request.

23 Exceptions occurred in the sales and service occupations and in public administration, agriculture, and trade. Unemployment rates for 1955 and 1961 are given at the bottom of Table 1.

24 In fact, male propensities to give up a job and return to school or household were slightly higher in 1955, as we would expect (see Table 2). The small decline in the female propensity in 1955 compared to 1961 is difficult to explain.

25 The majority of persons leaving employment for better jobs line-up alternative jobs before quitting. See J. Peter Mattila, "Job Quitting and Frictional Unemployment," American Economic Review (forthcoming, March 1974).

26 Women may respond more slowly to increasing national job opportunities because discrimination limits many of these opportunities to men or because discrimination forces women to compete with ever increasing female labor supply.

27 The B.L.S. survey is deficient in that it covered only one-third of all annual quits and that its statistics are probably biased due to the non-random sample employed. The Census Bureau surveys can be faulted for not enumerating quits directly or completely, for covering only two years, and for obtaining information from household members other than the original source.

28
Some sex discrimination will still exist because women spend less time in the labor force and hence have less experience and human capital than men.

TABLE 1

RATIO OF FEMALE TO MALE QUIT RATES BY REASON FOR LEAVING JOB

	1955			1961		
	Quits To Improve Job Status	Quits To Leave Labor Force	All Quits	Quits To Improve Job Status	Quits To Leave Labor Force	All Quits
Ratio: Female Quit Rate To Male Quit Rate						
National	.79	1.65	.92	.81	1.88	1.01
By Age:						
14-24	.77	.85	.78	.77	1.08	.87
25-44	.63	2.34	.79	.68	3.60	.91
45-64	.77	1.51	.87	1.27	1.86	1.38
By Occupation:						
Laborers*	.25	.20	.23	.70	1.82	1.04
Craftsmen*	.54	.65	.55	1.18	2.86	1.37
Operatives	.58	1.04	.65	.55	1.72	.74
Farmers & Farm Laborers*	.53	1.91	.75	.55	1.29	.73

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Professional	.70	.95	.76	.65	1.42	.79
Clerical	.98	1.06	1.00	1.01	1.96	1.20
Managers*	1.01	1.53	1.04	.84	2.67	1.05
Sales	1.01	3.74	1.21	.80	1.62	.89
Services (exc. P.H.W)	.97	2.40	1.24	.91	2.09	1.18
By Industry (Wage and Salary Workers Only):						
Public Administration*	.62	.79	.67	.45	.62	.50
Manufacturing	.60	1.03	.67	.88	2.33	1.14
Transportation, Communication, Utilities*	.55	1.51	.73	.59	3.24	1.20
Construction*	.69	.88	.73	.80	3.75	1.44
Services (exc. P.H.W)	.64	1.17	.73	.74	1.59	.89
Agriculture	.71	1.97	.99	.49	1.35	.71
Trade	.94	3.16	1.16	.82	2.13	1.02

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Unemployment Rate:		
National	4.4	6.7
Male	4.2	6.4
Female	4.9	7.2

*Estimated by author for one year or both years. Data were published for both sexes together and for either men or women. Quits for the other sex were estimated as a residual.

Sources:

U.S. Bureau of the Census, "Job Mobility of Workers in 1955," Current Population Reports: Labor Force, Series P-50, No. 70, (Washington D.C., February, 1957), Tables 12, 13, and 14.

Gertrude Bancroft and Stuart Garfinkle, "Job Mobility in 1961," Special Labor Force Report No. 35, (Washington D.C.: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1963), Tables H, I, and J.

U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Report of the President 1966, (Washington D.C.: G.P.O., March, 1966), pp. 162 and 164.

U.S. Bureau of the Census, "Annual Report on the Labor Force 1956," Current Population Reports: Labor Force, Series P-50, No. 72, (Washington D.C., March, 1957), pp. 6 and 28.

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings: Annual Supplement, (Washington D.C.: G.P.O., June, 1962), p. 70.

TABLE 1 (Continued)

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings: United States 1909-72, Bulletin 1312-9, (Washington D.C.: G.P.O., 1972), various pages.

Table 2

ANNUAL QUIT RATES* BY REASON

	1955		1961	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Ages 14+				
Quit to Improve Job Status	.0678	.0856	.0556	.0683
Quit to Leave Labor Force	.0255	.0155	.0285	.0152
All Quits	.0933	.1012	.0841	.0835
Ages 25-64				
Quit to Improve Job Status	.0484	.0733	.0428	.0566
Quit to Leave Labor Force	.0175	.0085	.0180	.0062
All Quits	.0659	.0817	.0608	.0629

*Total jobs left annually by reason and sex divided by average monthly employment by sex.

Sources: See Table 1.

TABLE 3

RATIO OF FEMALE TO MALE QUIT RATES BY

DETAILED MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY (1950-1968)

	1951-53 (1945 SIC)	1966-68 (1957 SIC)	1959-60 1962-63 (1957 SIC)	1958, 1961 (1957 SIC)
Ratio: Female Quit Rate To Male Quit Rate				
Manufacturing	1.24	1.23	1.69	1.84
Lumber & Wood	.77	.69	.72	.86
Textiles	1.09	.79	1.03	1.12
Furniture & Fixtures	.83	.79	.89	1.20
Leather	1.32	.81	1.05	1.13
Stone, Clay, Glass	.99	.89	1.29	1.42
Transportation Equipment	.97	.91	1.35	1.57
Fabricated Metals	.95	.94	1.27	1.54
Apparel	1.40	.96	1.34	1.47
Miscellaneous Mfg.	1.20	1.03	1.40	1.55
Tobacco	1.25	1.03	1.72	2.28

TABLE 3 (Continued)

Primary Metals	.98	1.09	2.14	3.10
Ordnance	.95	1.18	1.91	2.01
Paper	1.46	1.19	1.74	1.95
Food	1.18	1.21	1.51	1.65
Machinery	1.19	1.22	1.61	2.13
Printing	N.A.	1.32	1.59	1.65
Electrical Equipment	1.83	1.35	1.78	1.85
Rubber	1.43	1.37	1.85	2.08
Instruments	1.78	1.46	1.81	2.10
Chemicals	2.04	1.54	2.63	3.05
Petroleum	2.75	1.99	3.74	4.96
Unemployment Rate:				
National	3.1	3.7	5.6	6.8
Male	2.8	3.1	5.3	6.6
Female	3.8	4.9	6.1	7.0

Sources:

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Labor Turnover Report, Selected Monthly Issues 1950-1952, (Washington D.C.).

TABLE 3 (Continued)

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Payrolls, Selected Monthly Issues 1953-1954, (Washington D.C.).

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings, Selected Monthly Issues 1954-1969, (Washington D.C.: G.P.O.).

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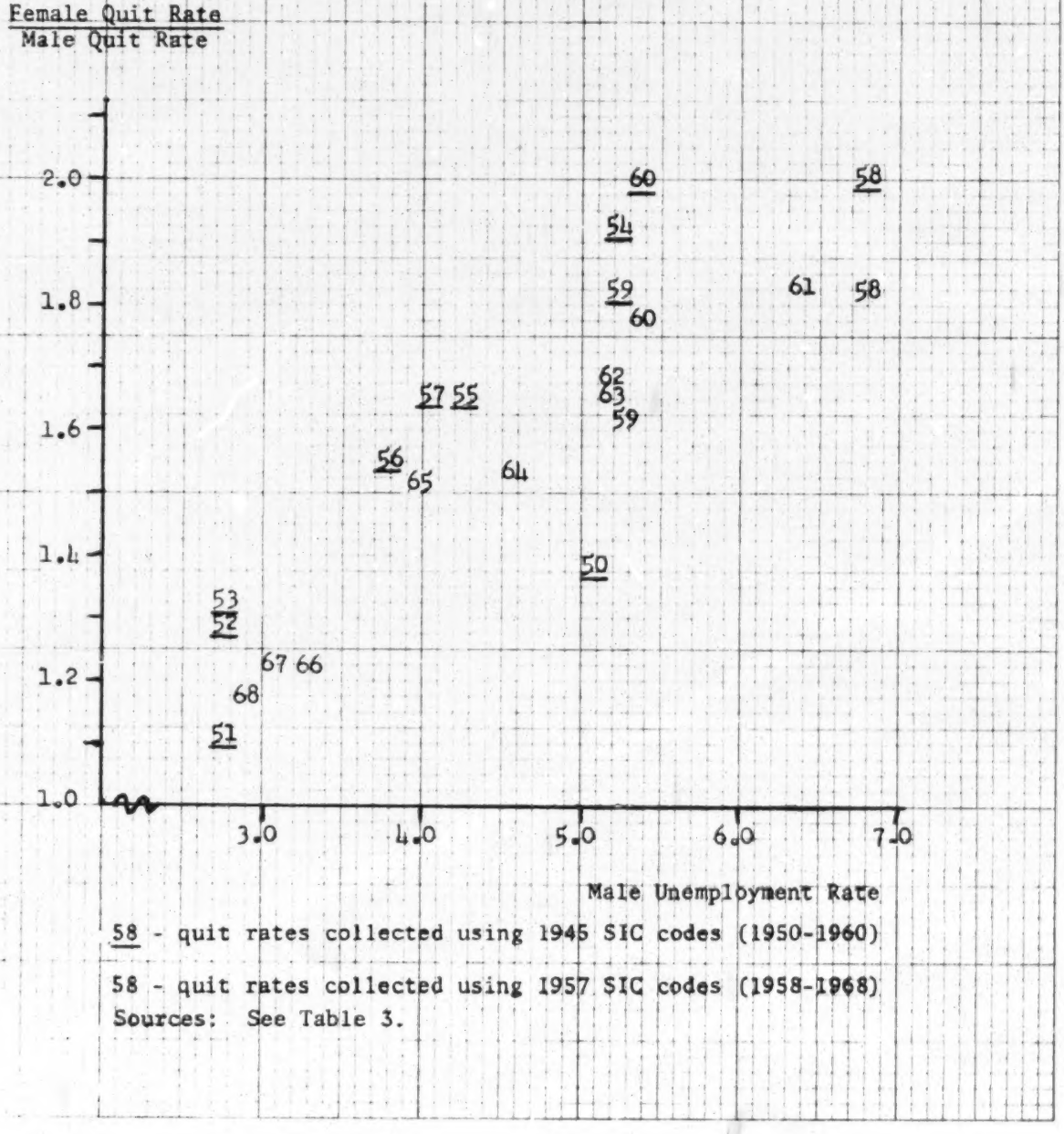
Graph 1

Cyclical Variation in the Ratio of Female to Male Quit Rates in Manufacturing 1950-1968



58 - quit rates collected using 1945 SIC codes (1950-1960)

58 - quit rates collected using 1957 SIC codes (1958-1968)

Sources: See Table 3.